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WELLINGTON, N.Z.

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NOTE: Where figures are given to a certain degree of approximation the total shown may not be the same as the sum of the items.

The following symbols have been used throughout the "Bulletin":

.. = not available.

— = nil or less than half the unit employed.

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# Full Employment of Economic Resources

## XI—THE FUNCTION OF INTEREST RATES

IN THE PROBLEM of allocating scarce resources for investment purposes the rate of interest is relevant because a high proportion of total investment is financed with borrowed money. Nevertheless interest rates have been the subject of much controversy, and it is apparent that there can be no simple answer to the problem of what influence they have on economic conditions and how they should be used. This article sets out some of the factors involved.

The rate of interest can best be described as the price of borrowed money. Price, supply, and demand are interdependent in respect of borrowed money, as they are for any commodity or service. A rise in price usually means that production of the commodity becomes more attractive and therefore more is produced; a lower price makes production less attractive and less of it is produced. Price changes also influence demand because other things being equal the higher the price the less will be demanded and the lower the price the more will that commodity be sought. Thus the price of borrowed money is related both to savings and capital expenditure. Saving means that of a given amount of income a certain portion is not spent on consumption. Capital expenditure means that of a given amount of expenditure a portion results in the creation of incomes without resulting in the immediate production of consumer goods or services. For an economic system to be in equilibrium planned savings should be equal to capital expenditure for investment. The rate of interest is thus, potentially at least, a stabilising factor on the economy if allowed to move freely.

### Effect of Interest Rates on Saving

As described in an earlier article there are various reasons why people save and the earning of interest is only one of them. Some people save merely because of excess income; many save in order to improve their fixed assets and their living standards; others want to provide for old age or to feel that they are protected against emergencies. But the rate of saving is influenced also by changes in the price level. People will postpone purchases (other than daily necessities) if prices are expected to fall, but will speed up their spending if rising prices or shortages are expected. With steadily rising prices monetary assets depreciate in real value but the holding of fixed assets is profitable because their money value is increasing; the gain from saving thus becomes small or negative compared with the advantage of spending now.

An adequate level of savings is important in itself, but it is also important that people who save should be willing and able to lend their savings to others. This is in part a matter of having an efficient capital market and in part a question of interest rates and taxation. There is convenience in readily available cash, and risk and trouble are involved in investment. If the net return from the investment after taxation is small compared with the trouble and risk involved, funds may lie idle. The rate of interest is probably as important in determining whether savings will be invested and where, as it is in deter-

mining how much will be saved. It can be said, however, that the higher the rate of interest the greater the volume of saving and the greater the incentive to invest.

### Effect of Interest Rates on Investment

The other important aspect of the rate of interest is its influence on capital formation, i.e., the production or importation of capital equipment (e.g., factories, offices, houses, machinery and equipment). The amount of capital formation depends on many factors of which the most important is the relationship between expected annual profits on the one hand and the annual cost of obtaining the capital goods on the other. In times of depression when expected profits are very low there will be a low level of investment in capital goods, even though interest rates and prices are also low. In times of boom when profits are high, most investment projects will not be affected by small rises in interest rates. Expressing this idea in technical terms, "investment will expand when the present capitalised value of the prospective earnings of new capital goods exceeds their cost." The effect of raising interest rates will therefore be as follows:—

- (a) The capitalised present value of prospective earnings will be lower;
- (b) Prospective earnings may be lower if the rise in the rate of interest is part of a comprehensive plan of disinflation;
- (c) There will be a number of marginal producers or investors for whom the increase in the rate of interest would be sufficient to make projected capital formation unprofitable. To that extent, expenditure on capital goods will be reduced.

### Stabilising Influence of Interest Rates

It is apparent that in a free market for borrowed funds supply and demand will tend to be brought into balance, and changes in interest rates will thus tend to act as a stabilising influence on the economic system. This does not mean that by themselves they have a kind of thermostatic effect. There are too many imperfections in the capital market and too many other factors at work at the same time for this to happen. It does mean, however, that the influence of flexible interest rates is towards reducing economic fluctuations. If interest rates are not adapted to changing circumstances they may accentuate economic fluctuations. For example, if interest rates are held below the level at which savings and investment are in equilibrium, incentives to saving are weakened and capital expenditure is stimulated. In a period when there is already full employment the result is inflation, the deficiency of savings being made up by the forced savings which occur under inflation, or by using up external monetary reserves or internal stocks of goods. In some overseas countries cheap money policies have been associated with the liberal use of bank credit, for if money is to be cheap it must be plentiful. Interest rates which are fixed at too high a level tend to produce a surplus of savings and a deficiency of investment, with consequent depressing

effect on the economy and possibly unemployment; and economic recovery is hindered until interest rates are lowered.

### Controls Over Investment

An adjustment of interest rates (whether controlled or free) is not the only way to restore balance between savings and investment. Use might also be made of tax adjustments, or direct controls, or exhortation, either in addition to changes in interest rates or as a substitute for them. In New Zealand's post-war years the problem has been to bring savings up to the level of investment demand, and the policy has been on the whole to keep interest rates as low as possible and to restrain investment by means of direct controls (see the preceding article in this series). In 1951, after interest rates had remained almost unchanged for ten years, the rate on Government securities, which was not subject to control, rose from 3 per cent to reach about 4 per cent in 1952, and the rate on property mortgages also began to move upwards. Other rates however are mostly fixed by regulation and only small adjustments have been made in them.

### Interest Rate Policy

The question of whether further increases in interest rates should be allowed as a deliberate policy measure has been much discussed in recent months. This is a topic on which there is legitimate reason for divergence of opinion.

During the world depression interest rates tended to fall of their own accord because of the weak demand for funds for investment purposes. Governments also sought to reduce them deliberately as a means of economising in expenditure for interest. The tendency towards lower rates was then confirmed by the writings of Keynes and others who stressed the importance of such policies for economic recovery and the restoration of full employment. At the same time the unhappy experience of the depression swung political and public opinion in favour of welfare policies, full employment and monetary expansion, the prevention of a return to depression conditions being rightly given high priority. Then came the war, and cheap money policies were confirmed. An expansion in the money supply and the war-time restraints on consumption helped to stimulate savings; opportunities for private investment were limited and the patriotic motive helped people to lend their savings for the war effort. High interest rates were neither necessary nor desirable in the circumstances. In the post-war years the situation changed; the patriotic motive for saving was no longer strong, opportunities for spending returned, and the capital requirements both of the Government and of industry were very large. In some countries monetary policies were quickly adjusted to the changed circumstances and interest rates were allowed to rise; in others the cheap money policies continued for a number of reasons including the fear that a post-war slump would soon develop. To keep interest rates low it was sometimes necessary to expand the money supply, and the demand for bank credit was in any case large because of the inadequate level of savings. As time went on, however, an increasing number of countries realised that the cheap money policies were contributing both to internal inflation and to external trade deficits. Policies were

adjusted accordingly with higher interest rates and tighter control of bank credit.

The arguments used in justifying the change in policy are broadly as described above—the need to give greater incentive to saving, to reverse or at least to halt the expansion of money supply, to bring the price mechanism into play in allocating resources for investment purposes. In short, higher interest rates have been part of an over-all attack on inflation and its accompanying restrictions, with a view to restoring stability and flexibility to the economy. For example, a Swedish opinion reads:—

"The credit restrictions introduced so far and the corresponding adaptation of the interest rate pattern have certainly been very moderate, and no one seriously believes that these changes alone will prove a sufficient cure for the current inflationary tendencies. Nevertheless, the change-over from a rigid and unadaptable cheap-money policy to a more flexible monetary policy is welcomed in Swedish banking and business circles, as this new approach is believed to increase the possibilities of an effective policy of general economic stabilization."\*

### Arguments Against Higher Interest Rates

In some countries the arguments in favour of more flexible interest rates have not been accepted; or if they have been acknowledged it has been considered that other arguments outweigh them. The reasons usually stated against higher interest rates are these:—

(a) That small changes in interest rates would have no significant effect on either savings or investment, because of the greater importance of other factors; and therefore interest rates would have to be raised to very high levels in order to have any real effect. This is probably true if small interest rate changes are not accompanied by other measures. On their own, they would be useless to combat serious inflation or deflation, because most savers or borrowers would be unaffected by small changes in interest rates. The purpose in raising rates, however, would not be to deter all borrowers, but only the "marginal" ones; and small changes could do this, especially if monetary restraints are operating at the same time.

(b) The additional cost of interest on the Public Debt, it is stated, would be an extra burden on the Public Revenue. This is of course correct, but the process would be gradual, as new loans were raised and old ones converted; and there would be a partial off-setting factor in the extra tax payments by recipients of interest. Moreover, if the higher interest rates are part of a successful anti-inflation policy, the rise in administrative and capital costs of Government would be halted or even reversed, and the savings thus made could more than offset the extra interest cost.

(c) It is stated also that higher interest rates would raise costs and prices, including the cost of living. Recent experience in other countries does not confirm this, partly because interest represents such a small element in costs, and partly because the over-all result of higher interest rates (especially if associated with credit restraints) is to halt inflation and to stabilize prices.

\*"Index," Svenska Handelsbanken, December, 1950.



(d) Similarly, it is often claimed that higher interest rates bring about a redistribution of the national income in favour of owners of property and money claims. Any tendency in this direction is likely however to be offset by the fact that stability following a period of inflation will have a greater impact on profits than on wages and salaries.

(e) There is also in some quarters a fear that higher interest rates will produce deflation and unemployment. Clearly this could happen if the rates rose too high and if credit restraints were too severe; but this can be avoided by sound judgment as to the appropriate level of interest rates, or by letting them find their own level, and by judicious use of monetary measures.

(f) Finally it is held that interest rates, as a device for rationing the available funds among potential borrowers, are not as effective as direct administrative controls (e.g., building or capital issues controls). The rate of interest, at whatever level, "selects" those investment projects which are profitable at that rate, and deters those which are not profitable. If the demand for funds exceeds the supply, the most "scientific" method of allocation is said to be direct planning on a basis of priorities. What is high in priority from an economic or social point of view may not be profitable in the financial sense except at low interest rates, or a highly profitable capital project may not be high on the priority list. The choice of method of allocating resources for capital purposes therefore becomes basically a choice between direct controls and the use of the mechanism of the market.

#### Conclusion

It is clear that there is no great magic in interest rates, no short cut to economic stability. Their general level must be governed by the prevailing economic conditions. Absence of flexibility in interest rates, however, impedes the operation of other policies, and makes more difficult the task of maintaining full employment, stable prices and balance of payments equilibrium. In times of depression a policy of low interest rates has proved beneficial while in times of inflation interest rates must be correspondingly higher.

## XII—EXTERNAL BORROWING AND COMMON-WEALTH DEVELOPMENT

IN THIS YEAR'S BUDGET the Prime Minister said: "It is a basic truth that before we can invest we must save or induce others overseas to lend us some of their savings . . . There has to be faced the basic fact that current available savings are inadequate to finance all present requirements of investment." The problem in the short run is whether to reduce consumption locally, or to reduce capital expenditure, or to borrow overseas. Already capital expenditure has been restrained—by controls in the private sector and a cutting of departmental expenditure. The importance of stimulating private saving has already been emphasised in the Budget and also in these articles. Is there a case, then, for borrowing overseas, not as a substitute for economies in capital expenditure or for increased saving, but in order to supplement them?

This conclusion is confirmed by recent overseas experience, as described in the Swedish quotation above and by the following quotation from the 1952 Annual Report of the Bank for International Settlements:—

"After nearly twenty years of frozen interest rates a decisive change has occurred in the course of the past two years; it has become the normal practice to make use once more of the well tried instruments of monetary policy and in particular, of changes in interest rates. The essence of the experience which has been gained during the past few years may be given in the following observations.

- (i) Changes in monetary policy have certainly not been the only factor influencing developments, but there would seem to be a wide measure of agreement as to the useful results which they have had. There can be little doubt that increases in interest rates have acted as a brake on the rise in prices and have helped to restore equilibrium in the balance of payments.
- (ii) Another important lesson of experience is that higher interest rates have not had the dire consequences which had often been prophesied. Employment has continued to increase, and such difficulties as have arisen in certain industries, e.g., the textile trade, have had no connection with the general credit policy, but rather reflect the attitude of the public after an overdose of spending at high prices. (Production in fact has continued to rise.)
- (iii) Finally it is now evident that the increases by which the level of interest rates has been raised cannot be said to have ushered in a new era of dear money. Only in a few cases have discount rates had to be raised to more than 4 per cent—which (in absolute terms) is not a high figure.

Only a more flexible policy which can be altered, if necessary, several times a year, will give a chance of combining a measure of short-term stability with long-run economic progress."

#### Arguments for Overseas Borrowing

New Zealand is still a young and developing country hungry for capital, and borrowing externally is a normal and appropriate practice for such a country, provided the amounts involved are reasonable and are wisely spent. The additional resources thus obtained would—

- (a) ensure that the present rates of investment and consumption can be maintained;
- (b) reduce the danger of inflation by increasing the supply of goods and by reducing the need to rely on bank credit;
- (c) ease the pressure on our balance of payments and perhaps permit a relaxing of controls.

The need to spend borrowed money wisely is of course obvious. In this context, "wisely" implies not only administrative and productive efficiency but also

a sound choice of projects which would expand the country's productive capacity and thus lead to more exports or less need for imports. The improved balance of payments position should thus make the payment of interest and the repayment of the loan a matter of no great burden on the economy. (The Murupara scheme is a good example of investment well suited to our present economic situation.)

The other main reason for overseas borrowing is linked with New Zealand's membership of the sterling area. Successive economic crises since the end of the war have been met mainly by emergency measures. Whilst reliance for restoring strength and stability to sterling must rest mainly on the ending of inflation, longer term plans attach considerable importance to a co-ordinated investment programme. If the sterling area is to surmount its trading difficulties, investment must be encouraged to build up exports and reduce the need for imports, particularly those from the dollar area. The problem cannot, however, be satisfactorily solved by developing enterprises which will be non-competitive in world trading conditions or by using inflationary methods of finance. The need for efficiency and attention to costs is paramount. If prices rise in the sterling area relative to prices outside the sterling area, the resultant trade difficulties may negate any improvement in the balance of payments arising from investment programmes.

#### Arguments against Overseas Borrowing

The case against overseas borrowing is usually stated along the following lines:—

- (a) The need to pay interest and repay the principal of the loans places a burden on the borrowing country. It should not be forgotten that in 1932 interest payments on New Zealand's external debt amounted to 26 per cent of export income. Nor can the problem of repaying the principal of the loan be neglected, as changing circumstances may make it costly or difficult.
- (b) It is felt by some that by accepting overseas capital New Zealand will cease to be "master of its own house." Not only might this result from the fact that foreigners would acquire important capital assets in New Zealand, but the terms on which loans can be raised might infringe upon New Zealand's sovereignty.

Neither of these arguments can be a valid reason against raising overseas capital. An article in the Reserve Bank "Bulletin" of January, 1953, showed that the burden of interest payments on today's external debt is very small; in fact it has declined from 26 per cent of export income in 1932 to 1 per cent in 1952. This has been due mainly to the fact that export prices have risen very considerably while interest payments have been in fixed amounts. A considerable portion of the external debt has been repaid, while the average rate of interest has dropped from 4.5 per cent in 1930-31 to 3.3 per cent in 1951-52. A large sum would now have to be raised and/or export income would have to drop to a considerable degree before interest payments on overseas debt would cause concern. Borrowing from abroad can only become a burden if excessive amounts of money are borrowed or if the money is badly spent. Overseas borrowing, if used to develop the country's com-

petitive export capacity or to lessen the need for imports, creates the ability to meet the interest and ultimate repayment.

As to the control of New Zealand assets which overseas lenders may have, the primary consideration is the form in which the money is borrowed. If money is borrowed by the government by an issue of stock or bonds in overseas markets, the terms of the loan are based on market conditions at the time and the subscribers have no say over policy in New Zealand. If the money is borrowed by the government from any other source, the terms are agreed upon in advance and there is no obligation on the borrower to accept unreasonable terms. New Zealand's need for overseas capital is far from being so acute that we must accept a loan on unfavourable terms. Private investment in New Zealand can take the form of direct investment by overseas companies in their subsidiaries in New Zealand, or the sale of New Zealand companies' stock to non-residents. The controlling interest may still be in New Zealand; and even if it is not, operations within New Zealand are subject to our laws. Should there be a threat of domination by overseas interests in a manner harmful to New Zealand, it could be promptly dealt with.

#### Sources of Funds

An important part of New Zealand's economic development has been financed with private capital from overseas. Every effort should be made to encourage such investment; but some of the most important fields for investment—e.g. agricultural development and public works—are normally not very attractive to overseas lenders. Industrial projects would be more likely to attract investors.

In the past the United Kingdom has been the main source of external funds to finance New Zealand's development. Indeed up to about 1914 nearly the whole of the public debt incurred to finance public works was domiciled in the United Kingdom. In those days Britain's savings were sufficient to finance not only home investment but also a considerable volume of investment in other countries. Her position has greatly changed since then and the resources now available for Commonwealth development are limited. The pre-requisite to investment abroad by the United Kingdom is a surplus of savings reflected in a surplus in the balance of payments. To achieve the necessary savings and surplus is now difficult for the United Kingdom, and the amount likely to be made available will be small.

In spite of difficulties the United Kingdom has exported no less than £1,100m. of capital to the sterling area since 1946. This would have been impossible but for the American and Canadian loans and Marshall Aid. The United Kingdom has provided to the rest of the sterling area a sum equal to approximately half the foreign aid received. This imposed a strain on her economy, and with dollar aid now much reduced the United Kingdom is not now in a position to invest abroad as much as in the earlier post-war years.

The United Kingdom does not wish to cease exporting capital. Quite the contrary, but it wants the capital to be devoted to projects that will improve the position of the sterling area. The formation of the Commonwealth Development Finance Corporation to stimulate the flow of capital from the United

Kingdom to the rest of the Commonwealth was noted in the March, 1953 "Bulletin"; and the U.K. Government has authorised the International Bank to lend £60m. of its holdings of sterling to sterling area countries in the next six years. The United Kingdom is also contributing capital to the Colombo Plan for the development of countries in South-East Asia, by allowing some of them to draw on their "frozen" sterling balances. These facts indicate a readiness to let capital flow in increased quantities, but the amount will still be small relative to needs. New Zealand may be able to obtain limited supplies of sterling capital for high priority projects which will be of benefit to the sterling area; but we will have to establish our claims in relation to those of other Commonwealth countries, including the Colonial territories whose development merits high priority on political and social as well as economic grounds.

The United States, as the world's greatest creditor nation, will continue to be the main source of capital, either directly or indirectly through international agencies. The sources of United States capital through the Government are direct grants, such as Marshall Aid, Mutual Security Defence Aid, grants under the Point Four programme for under-developed areas, and loans from the Export-Import Bank.\* Loans from United States private sources include market issues and direct investment by companies, and by banks or other financial institutions. There has been a considerable volume of United States private investment since 1945, but little has come to New Zealand.

One difficulty is that New Zealand is neither an

\* For a description of this Bank see "Bulletin" for April, 1953.

"under-developed" nor a war-devastated country, and therefore does not qualify for special forms of aid. Nor are we yet well enough known to potential investors to be able to raise money on favourable terms in dollar markets. An application has been made to the Export-Import Bank, an agency of the United States Government, for part of the finance required for the Murupara project, and a decision is awaited. The present policy of the U.S. administration is to promote a larger volume of private foreign investment but to reduce government grants and loans. If dollar capital is required in the future it will largely depend on attracting the U.S. private lender.

A further source of capital which is available is the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development. New Zealand is not a member and thus cannot borrow from it; but many loans have already been made by it to Commonwealth countries for development purposes. (For a description of its lending operations see "Bulletin" for September, 1952.)

There are other sources from which New Zealand might possibly secure capital. Sweden, Switzerland, and Belgium are nations which have invested overseas since the war, but the amount of capital coming from these countries to New Zealand is likely to be small.

#### Conclusion

There is at present a very strong case for New Zealand supplementing her domestic savings by obtaining overseas loans. Such loans are not always available, and even if they are the main source of funds must always be our own savings. Opportunity should be taken to borrow moderate amounts from the best possible sources, for projects of high priority.

## Mortgage Registrations and Interest Rates

IN THE FINANCING OF FARMING and housing in New Zealand the practice of making loans based upon the security of the land and buildings has always been common. Apart from a short period during the depression of the thirties, and the existing control by the Capital Issues Committee of mortgages in excess of £10,000, the rate of interest on mortgages has not been subject to legislative control. The market for mortgage funds has on the whole been a free one, and the varying rates of interest at which loans are made reflect changes in the internal financial position.

### Average Interest Rates

The rate of interest on mortgages in the 19th century and the first quarter of the twentieth century was higher than that to which we are accustomed today. The two most common groups of rates in the 1890's were 5-5½ per cent, and 6-6½ per cent. By 1914, when regular calculations of the average rate of interest were commenced, this situation still prevailed.

The average rate from 1914 onwards is shown in the table on the next page and the graph on page 157. Apart from minor fluctuations it will be seen

that the rate fell slightly during the first World War but rose to a peak level of over 6½ per cent in 1923. During the remainder of the twenties it stayed high although after 1926 the rise was more apparent than real. Commencing from that time State Advances mortgages were not included in the calculations, whereas formerly some of them were included. (The rates on State mortgages have usually been somewhat below market rates.)

At the onset of the depression of the thirties the average rate was about 6½ per cent. In order to reduce the severity of the depression legislation was introduced to obtain some reduction in the burden of mortgage indebtedness.

In early 1931 restrictions were placed on the power of mortgagees to sell or take possession of properties, and in May, 1932, the National Expenditure Adjustment Act sought to bring about a 20 per cent reduction in rates of interest payable by mortgagors. The rate was not however to be compulsorily reduced to less than 5 per cent.

On new mortgages the rate of interest was not restricted by legislation, but owing to a reduced demand for investment money as a result of economic depression, this rate also dropped fairly



steadily during the mid-thirties. The value of new mortgages registered dropped very sharply and by 1934 was less than a fifth of the 1930 figure.

#### NEW MORTGAGE REGISTRATIONS

Year ended 31st March	£million	Average Rate Per Cent
1914	21.4	5.82
1915	19.4	5.76
1916	22.5	5.74
1917	21.1	5.80
1918	18.1	5.84
1919	19.0	5.84
1920	48.4	5.75
1921	67.0	5.89
1922	34.8	6.42
1923	26.0	6.57
1924	37.9	6.38
1925	41.1	6.30
1926	47.1	6.22
1927	40.0	6.47*
1928	33.2	6.46*
1929	33.6	6.46*
1930	38.9	6.35*
1931	30.2	6.25*
1932	13.4	6.28*
1933	9.2	5.88*
1934	7.8	5.56*
1935	11.8	5.06
1936	16.2	4.73
1937	19.7	4.60
1938	19.0	4.65
1939	20.0	4.58
1940	17.6	4.69
1941	16.3	4.69
1942	14.5	4.73
1943	12.1	4.72
1944	15.6	4.63
1945	18.1	4.51
1946	22.5	4.10
1947	31.7	3.85
1948	32.3	3.90
1949	35.4	3.98
1950	36.0	3.99
1951	46.1	4.09
1952	73.2	4.15
1953	74.7	4.29

\* State Advances mortgages excluded from calculation of rate.

From 1935-36 onwards, all State Advances mortgages were included in the calculations of the average rate of interest, so that apparent reductions at this time were at least partly due to this cause.

Following the outbreak of the last war fewer loans were made on mortgage but the average rate of interest remained fairly stable. It fell sharply in the post-war period, when large sums were loaned to ex-servicemen at specially favourable rates of interest. (See "Bulletin" for May, 1950, p. 40.) For example, under the rehabilitation programme approved ex-servicemen received loans at 3 per cent for the purchase of houses or farms. In the immediate post-war years over one-third of new registrations were at 3 per cent, and the majority of these would be rehabilitation loans. This is the main reason why the average rate of interest on all mortgages in 1946-47 was down to a record low of 3.85 per cent.

The average rate moved upwards after 1947 mainly because rehabilitation lending formed a smaller proportion of the total. There was no perceptible hardening in rates for private lending until 1952-53 when the proportion of new mortgages registered in the higher range of interest rates rose appreciably. The exact turning point is not discernible because monthly calculations were discontinued from September, 1949, when the average rate stood at 4.00 per cent. The

next available monthly figure is for April, 1952, by which time it had risen to 4.19 per cent. Although increases from this time have been uneven from month to month, a peak of 4.47 per cent was reached in April this year. The rate has since dropped slightly, but it is too early to judge whether this may be the beginning of a new trend, or merely a temporary change. In view of the fact that the yield on Government securities has recently fallen to just under 4 per cent, after rising from 3 per cent in mid-1951 to over 4 per cent early this year, it may be that mortgage interest rates will remain fairly steady at this present level.

The table on page 157 shows the value of new registrations grouped according to various ranges of interest rates. The very high interest rates—the over 6½ per cent—are believed to be on 2nd or 3rd mortgages where the risk to the lender is higher. The "3 per cent and under" consists mostly of Government loans to ex-servicemen, while other Government loans through the State Advances Corporation are at 4½ per cent. The balance of the "over 4 to 4½ per cent" and the "over 4½ per cent to 5 per cent" categories represent the bulk of private lending on first mortgage.

#### Sources of Funds

Although lending on mortgage is fairly widely practised in New Zealand, few details are recorded as to the source of private funds; but these account for more than two-thirds of the total. The annual report on Insurance Statistics in New Zealand shows that in 1950 insurance companies held mortgages to the value of £28m. Other financial institutions such as trustee and investment companies, trustee savings banks and building societies, also have substantial holdings, while the balance of non-Government mortgages is held mainly by individuals.

Government mortgage lending has been a feature of the capital market since the Advances to Settlers Act in 1894. Nowadays this type of lending is done by the State Advances Corporation, although the Marginal Lands Board and the Lands Department also make loans on mortgage.

State Advances lending since 1945 is shown in the following table (Rehabilitation loans are included).

#### STATE ADVANCES CORPORATION NEW MORTGAGE INVESTMENTS

Year Ending 31st March	£ million	Percentage of All New Registrations
1945	3.0	16
1946	7.1	31
1947	11.9	38
1948	11.0	34
1949	10.5	30
1950	11.1	31
1951	12.9	26
1952	15.5	21
1953	19.8	26

#### Value of Mortgages Outstanding

Reliable estimates of total mortgage indebtedness are difficult to make because, though figures are available for values of mortgages registered and discharged, a high proportion of all mortgages are repaid on a table basis and the instalments are not recorded in the statistics. When a table mortgage is finally discharged its full value is shown and not just the final instalment.



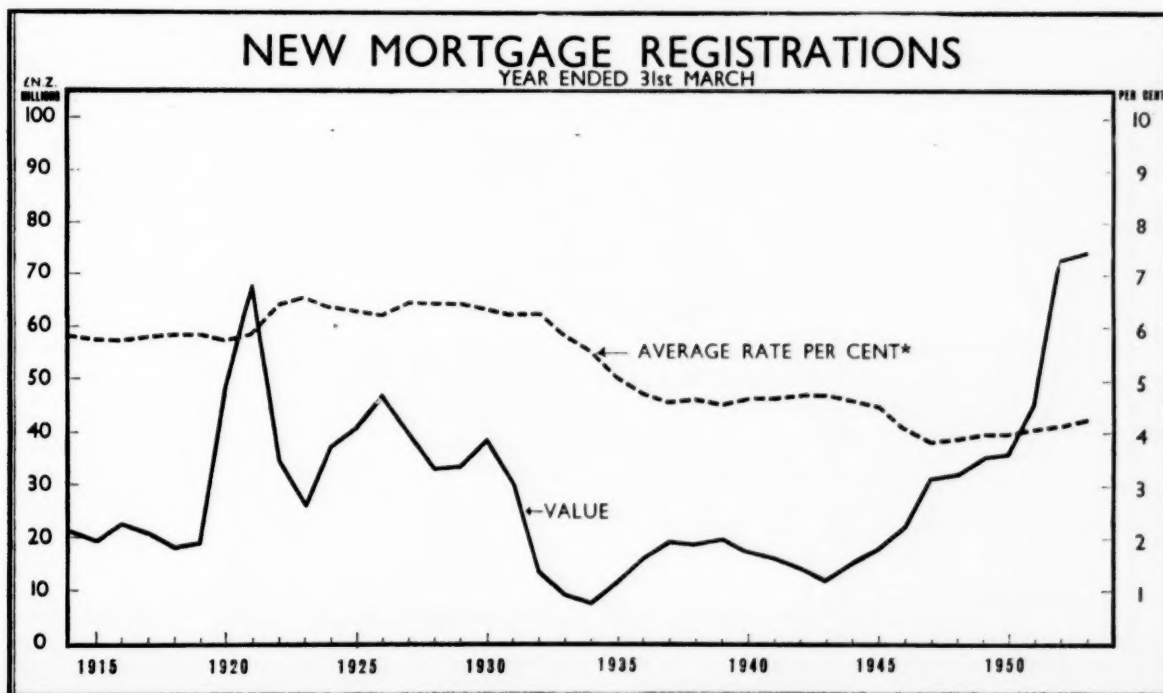
## MORTGAGE INTEREST RATES

## New Registrations

(£N.Z. thousands)

Source: Census and Statistics Department.

Year ended 31st March	3% and under	Over 3% to 4%	Over 4% to 4½%	Over 4½% to 5%	Over 5% to 5½%	Over 5½% to 6½%	Over 6½%	Un- specified	Total	Average Rate %
1945	456	1,180	9,333	3,069	185	431	203	3,249	18,106	4.51
1946	5,883	1,838	7,971	3,077	166	498	178	2,929	22,540	4.10
1947	12,317	4,457	8,043	2,956	246	480	207	2,981	31,686	3.85
1948	11,999	4,725	8,550	2,584	598	670	282	2,904	32,312	3.90
1949	10,796	5,057	11,386	2,862	570	648	274	3,800	35,394	3.98
1950	10,302	5,525	12,748	2,697	276	629	319	3,551	36,049	3.99
1951	10,558	6,904	18,984	3,780	321	767	590	4,151	46,056	4.09
1952	12,635	9,838	34,621	5,109	990	1,275	490	8,222	73,180	4.15
1953	12,533	4,709	34,813	12,957	1,102	1,755	977	5,874	74,720	4.29
Monthly:										
1952—Apr.	836	415	2,290	456	60	77	33	406	4,571	4.19
May	1,167	420	3,367	843	77	174	91	465	6,604	4.26
June	1,115	404	3,471	833	78	148	69	476	6,594	4.25
July	1,401	474	3,713	1,091	123	143	60	573	7,578	4.24
Aug.	1,272	490	3,593	1,026	61	129	98	571	7,240	4.25
Sept.	1,181	444	3,027	1,167	102	151	78	384	6,535	4.28
Oct.	1,323	467	3,228	1,235	79	181	114	462	7,089	4.28
Nov.	985	284	2,653	1,203	79	110	86	375	5,774	4.30
Dec.	1,061	611	3,412	1,520	124	221	118	714	7,780	4.34
1953—Jan.	436	194	1,054	635	86	158	43	254	2,858	4.41
Feb.	799	264	2,226	1,145	94	133	90	686	5,437	4.37
Mar.	956	244	2,780	1,804	139	131	98	508	6,659	4.40
Apr.	610	292	1,819	1,405	107	173	72	409	4,887	4.47
May	878	222	1,777	1,928	132	170	133	590	5,831	4.47
June	932	554	2,083	1,974	171	162	130	725	6,732	4.42
July	1,000	337	2,181	2,287	196	259	107	625	6,991	4.46
Aug.	919	394	2,324	2,092	130	202	160	658	6,880	4.45



\* State Advances Mortgages excluded from rate between 1926 and 1934.

## The Census of Distribution

THE CENSUS AND STATISTICS DEPARTMENT has recently released the preliminary results of the first census of distribution to be carried out in New Zealand. The fieldwork of this was begun in May. Information on wholesale trade, service establishments and further details of retailing are yet to be published. The Department plans to repeat the census each five years, and in the intervals between to maintain a sample survey of retail trade.

The business community has co-operated well in providing the basic information. (Figures of sales, stocks and credit etc., were required from each individual firm for the year ended 31st March, 1953.) It is estimated that the results to hand cover 95 per cent of all stores and about 97 per cent of all retail turnover. An allowance for the returns outstanding will bring the total retail stores figure up to 22,500 and the total turnover for these up to £415 million.

The tables opposite show the location of retail markets by size of town and the nature of the commodities sold. During the year 30 per cent of retail purchases were from food and drink stores, 13 per cent from clothing and 6 per cent from furniture stores. Purchases of cars, spare parts, motor cycles and push-bikes accounted for a further 13 per cent.

About half the total number of stores are in the food and drink groups—grocers, butchers, dairies, hotels and so on. About a quarter of all stores were small units with under £5,000 of turnover, but their combined turnover (£16.8 million) represented only 4.2 per cent of the total. There were only 122 stores with over £250,000 turnover each, but their combined sales were £71.8 million, or 17.8 per cent of total turnover.

The distribution of stores and turnover throughout the various provincial districts is roughly proportionate to population. However, within districts the principal centres of population (classified as urban areas) cover 55 per cent of New Zealand's population but contain 61 per cent of all stores and make 68 per cent of all sales.

The census has provided useful information on the level of retail stocks, which for all New Zealand amounted to £71.8 million at 31st March 1953, com-

pared with £64.3 million a year earlier. The value of stocks for various groups of commodities is shown in Table II. The highest rate of turnover in relation to stocks was shown by the "food and drink" group, and the lowest by "apparel."

TABLE I—RETAIL TRADING  
Analysis by Location

Location	Percentage of			
	Popula- tion March 1953	Stores	Turn- over	Stocks at end of Year
Main Urban Areas <sup>1</sup>	41.8	44.1	47.6	46.8
Secondary U.A.'s <sup>2</sup>	13.7	16.9	20.5	21.5
Smaller Centres (bor- oughs outside U.A.'s but with population of over 4,000)	6.0	10.3	10.4	11.2
Other Urban	7.4	14.9	12.1	12.6
Rural (counties and town districts)	31.1	13.8	9.4	7.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

<sup>1</sup>Auckland, Wellington and Hutt, Christchurch and Dunedin Urban Areas.

<sup>2</sup>Hamilton, Gisborne, Napier, Hastings, New Plymouth, Palmerston North, Wanganui, Nelson, Timaru and Invercargill Urban Areas.

TABLE II—RETAIL TRADING  
Analysis by Main Store-types

Nature of Business	No. of Stores	Turn- over during year	Stocks at	
			Start of Year	Close of Year
Food and Drink	10,033	£ (000) 122,421	£ (000) 7,722	£ (000) 8,470
Apparel	3,215	52,673	16,961	17,587
Furniture	958	23,804	5,606	5,805
Automotive (Motor Vehicles etc.)	906	52,729	4,969	5,832
Hardware	674	20,289	4,051	5,290
Chemicals	664	7,566	1,435	1,597
Miscellaneous	5,073	124,515	23,520	27,180
Totals, New Zealand	21,523	403,997	64,264	71,761

### Shorter Notes

#### Second National Development Loan

The second issue (£10 million) of the 1953 National Development Loan, which was opened for subscription on 10th September and closed on 15th October, was over-subscribed by a small amount. There were 6,884 applications. The terms were the same as for the earlier issue in May-June, including the same maturity date. (See "Bulletin" for May, 1953.)

#### Meat Export Prices

The prices to be paid by the United Kingdom Ministry of Food for New Zealand lamb, mutton and beef in the 1953-54 season have been announced. Pig-meat prices have yet to be finalised.

The average price for lamb has been increased by 7½ per cent from £148 per ton to £159 per ton. The price rise for mutton is 5½ per cent. Beef prices have been raised by varying amounts. The basic price has been increased by 5½ per cent, but a new classification known as "baby beef" has been introduced for which a premium of approximately £15 per ton will be paid over the new price for G.A.Q. frozen beef. The specifications for baby beef include a weight range from 400 lb. to 720 lb. per carcass and an age limitation of two years eight months.

The premium of £26 per ton over the new price for G.A.Q. frozen beef will be maintained for shipments exported in chilled form. The weight range for this class of beef is from 480 lb. to 740 lb. per carcass.

(£N.Z. thousands)

## Liabilities and Assets

Average of Weekly Figures:	LIABILITIES				ASSETS								
	Bank Notes	Demand Liabilities			Reserve			Investments		Advances to State		Other Advances and Discounts	Other Assets*
		State	Banks	Other	Gold	Sterling Exchange	Other* Exchange	Over-seas	In N.Z.	Market's Orgns.	Other		
1946	45,169	17,302	59,731	524	2,802	81,332	—	4,124	1,867	961	35,127	—	1,306
1947	47,682	13,265	57,102	483	2,802	85,300	—	3,826	749	1,157	28,510	5	1,046
1948*	48,930	13,228	57,706	380	2,802	65,090	—	5,704	4,792	1,698	35,182	2,437	7,549
1949	51,312	11,384	73,837	355	3,223	48,995	—	7,121	34,734	3,482	37,628	4,907	1,973
1950	55,126	15,446	74,239	1,232†	4,269	51,319	256	4,463	26,850	5,096	52,245	5,378	2,277
1951	60,361	18,844	69,326	4,929†	5,139	62,557	383	9,988	17,119	3,379	51,134	6,829	3,224
1952	62,252	14,962	48,557	490†	5,856	23,416	1,235	30,244	11,325	2,290	50,795	6,125	1,761
Last Wednesday in Month:													
1952—Sept.	59,331	6,231	56,029	445	6,008	17,842	2,321	32,140	8,042	764	54,691	6,019	882
Oct.	60,484	10,159	63,187	322	6,009	31,992	1,376	22,090	20,042	745	51,512	6,019	1,058
Nov.	62,038	7,988	68,452	216	6,012	32,157	963	22,090	24,042	965	52,748	6,019	747
Dec.	69,247	7,681	71,992	176	6,013	30,467	652	22,090	36,042	3,007	51,214	6,019	603
1953—Jan.	63,626	8,200	88,846	726	6,015	38,466	773	22,090	36,042	4,311	54,066	6,019	809
Feb.	61,908	13,635	95,161	647	6,015	48,830	844	22,090	36,042	5,187	53,163	6,019	733
Mar.	62,469	17,071	69,167	488	6,015	53,283	600	22,090	10,042	8,067	50,007	6,019	825
Apr.	62,886	5,630	89,382	567	6,017	58,719	727	21,840	13,042	7,717	50,036	6,019	2,239
May	62,656	4,977	95,883	676	6,020	65,820	691	21,840	13,110	6,952	50,834	6,019	1,064
June	62,605	4,741	102,249	2,594	6,021	65,898	665	23,840	13,166	11,144	52,631	6,019	1,100
July	62,142	4,825	99,826	1,907	6,023	65,948	556	23,840	13,167	8,895	50,000	6,019	1,291
Aug.	62,647	4,462	99,869	705	6,024	65,840	581	23,840	13,149	5,984	52,736	6,019	902
Sept.	63,054	9,885	97,976	1,659	6,027	65,876	413	23,840	18,177	1,984	56,884	6,019	925
Oct. 7	63,228	11,110	98,305	3,019	6,027	65,519	584	23,840	23,178	733	56,180	6,019	1,120
14	63,929	11,221	94,582	1,634	6,027	62,909	441	23,840	23,181	939	54,372	6,019	1,141
21	64,151	7,532	95,791	4,671	6,027	61,540	427	23,840	23,188	1,040	56,948	6,019	746
28	64,667	8,570	95,428	894	6,028	62,460	550	23,840	23,190	1,255	53,024	6,019	825

\* On and after 20th August, 1948, overseas assets and liabilities converted to N.Z. currency at rate, £Stg.100 = £N.Z.100; previously £Stg.100 = £N.Z.124.

† Prior to 1950 the figures for "Other Exchange" are included under "Other Assets".

‡ Included in these figures are the weekly averages of amounts in Wool Retention Accounts: 1950, £117,000; 1951, £4,204,000; 1952, £6,000. For details of the Wool Retention scheme see text page 19 of February, 1951, issue.

## II—TRADING BANKS

## Liabilities and Assets

(£N.Z. thousands)

Average of Monthly Figures:	LIABILITIES (in New Zealand)				ASSETS					Unexercised Overdraft Authorities
	Demand	Time		Total Demand and Time Liabilities	Bankers' Cash*	Net O'seas Assets	Securities		Advances and Discounts	
		Wool Retention Accounts†	Other				Govt.	Other		
1946	117,071	—	34,414	151,485	67,794	12,541	26,168	2,293	58,342	45,041
1947	128,115	—	37,870	165,984	66,041	13,295	20,913	2,124	76,247	46,669
1948*	138,211	—	40,403	178,614	68,814	13,464	16,953	1,942	86,470	50,650
1949	150,699	—	39,016	189,715	86,120	14,526	12,856	1,813	81,981	57,686
1950	167,526	—	39,787	207,313	86,674	17,362	11,730	1,677	94,065	64,178
1951	196,663	19,589	39,815	256,068	83,278	27,276	11,716	1,527	133,079	72,230
1952	187,478	28,612	39,373	255,463	63,730	16,985	11,701	1,335	166,560	69,888
Last Wednesday in Month:										
1952—Sept.	179,978	27,422	38,961	246,360	66,385	12,350	11,687	1,269	158,922	70,246
Oct.	180,876	26,995	38,417	246,289	73,651	11,390	11,687	1,266	159,368	71,702
Nov.	183,448	26,724	38,067	248,239	80,474	11,717	11,687	1,255	150,883	76,859
Dec.	186,314	26,460	37,309	250,083	86,297	18,137	11,687	1,251	141,916	80,609
1953—Jan.	195,167	25,607	37,058	257,833	101,110	18,333	11,687	1,190	135,289	87,325
Feb.	208,004	24,705	36,304	269,013	106,812	23,012	11,687	1,177	129,818	89,476
Mar.	200,271	24,061	35,951	260,284	81,376	25,742	11,687	1,175	140,449	84,582
Apr.	210,055	23,201	36,101	269,357	100,908	27,697	11,687	1,158	134,947	89,727
May	221,058	22,764	35,721	279,542	107,019	28,511	11,687	2,104	134,590	91,192
June	219,378	22,338	35,466	277,182	113,493	26,901	11,686	2,162	128,295	93,095
July	206,372	21,801	34,845	263,018	109,463	17,759	11,690	2,199	129,473	94,053
Aug.	209,970	21,488	35,467	266,925	110,947	16,403	11,690	2,186	131,445	96,534
Sept.	208,799	21,086	35,747	265,631	108,844	11,918	11,690	2,171	137,148	93,589

\* Bankers' Cash includes Notes and Coin, and Balances at Reserve Bank.

† See text pages 19 and 67 of February and May, 1951, issues respectively.

\* On and after 20th August, 1948, overseas assets and liabilities converted to N.Z. currency at rate, £Stg.100 = £N.Z.100; previously £Stg.100 = £N.Z.124.

## III—FOREIGN EXCHANGE

OCTOBER, 1953

(£N.Z. thousands)

## 1. Net Overseas Assets\*

Last Wednesday in Month :	1950			1951			1952			1953		
	Total	Reserve Bank	Trading Banks	Total	Reserve Bank	Trading Banks	Total	Reserve Bank	Trading Banks	Total	Reserve Bank	Trading Banks
Jan.	63,360	58,413	32,482	90,895	58,490	19,868	78,359	61,492	18,333	79,825		
Feb.	67,304	65,198	34,053	99,251	56,670	22,694	79,364	71,809	23,012	94,821		
Mar.	74,175	68,254	31,504	99,758	56,662	22,101	78,764	76,192	25,742	101,934		
Apr.	82,285	72,410	30,000	102,410	57,035	17,796	74,831	81,621	27,697	109,319		
May	89,241	80,410	34,018	114,428	58,898	18,213	77,111	88,625	28,511	117,136		
June	87,016	83,824	39,492	123,316	55,062	19,526	74,588	90,655	26,901	117,555		
July	83,509	83,454	40,059	123,513	52,886	16,622	69,507	90,716	17,759	108,476		
Aug.	78,402	94,150	23,712	117,862	55,391	13,408	68,799	90,596	16,403	106,998		
Sept.	71,009	91,914	18,802	110,716	52,456	12,350	64,806	90,406	11,918	102,324		
Oct.	68,843	83,855	14,108	97,963	55,512	11,390	66,902	86,982	11,905	98,887		
Nov.	63,541	72,947	13,401	86,347	55,281	11,717	66,998					
Dec.	72,984†	66,123†	15,680†	81,803†	53,426	18,137	71,563					

\* Foreign exchange and overseas investments held by the New Zealand banking system in respect of New Zealand business, less overseas liabilities. The Reserve Bank figures include not only sterling exchange as formerly, but also other foreign exchange holdings and overseas investments. † Last Wednesday before Christmas.

(£N.Z. thousands)

## 2. Foreign Exchange Transactions of New Zealand Banking System

Calendar Month	1952					1953				
	RECEIPTS		PAYMENTS		Balance of Transactions	RECEIPTS		PAYMENTS		Balance of Transactions
	Exports	Other	Imports*	Other		Exports	Other	Imports*	Other	
Jan.	20,368	2,272	27,296	2,071	— 6,728	25,896	2,064	18,769	2,536	+ 6,654
Feb.	24,674	4,589	25,276	2,949	+ 1,038	29,113	1,549	12,901	2,768	+14,992
Mar.	24,381	2,564	24,777	4,699	— 2,531	25,583	2,499	16,508	6,897	+ 4,676
April	18,967	3,208	20,704	3,434	— 1,963	25,507	1,689	13,760	2,973	+10,463
May	21,818	2,594	20,003	2,973	+ 1,436	22,820	1,889	14,032	3,119	+ 7,558
June	13,593	1,983	20,200	3,149	— 7,773	13,581	1,585	15,012	2,896	— 2,741
July	13,927	2,438	19,033	2,984	— 5,652	13,936	2,168	18,185	5,286	— 7,367
Aug.	14,761	1,905	16,257	2,982	— 2,573	14,187	1,597	15,275	3,108	— 2,599
Sept.	12,177	2,245	15,168	3,081	— 3,828	13,723	2,360	16,026	3,010	— 2,953
Oct.	16,752	1,693	15,091	2,984	+ 370					
Nov.	13,904	1,986	13,261	2,209	+ 421					
Dec.	20,587	1,976	13,196	5,026	+ 4,340					
Total	215,909	29,452	230,262	38,541	—23,441					

\* Includes estimated payments for Government imports.

## IV—MONEY RATES

## 1. DEPOSIT RATES

	Date of last alteration	Demand	Months					
			3-6	6-12	12-24	24-36	36-48	48 & over
Trading Banks	17/7/41		1½%	1½%	1½%	2%		
P.O. Savings Bank								
Up to £500	1/6/42	2½%						
£501 to £2,000	1/6/42	2%						
£2,001 to £5,000	1/9/52	1½%						
£5,001 and over		nil						
Trustee Savings Banks*								
Up to £500†	1/6/42	2½%						
Trading Companies*	18/12/52	1½%	1½%	2%	2½%	2½%	3%	3½%
Building & Investment Societies*	20/11/52	1½%	1½%	2%	2½%	2½%	3%	3½%
Local Authorities*	17/7/41	1%	1½%	1½%				

\* Maximum Rates—Fixed by Order-in-Council. † Statutory limit on which interest may be paid raised from £200 to £500 on 1/7/45.

## 2. ADVANCE RATES

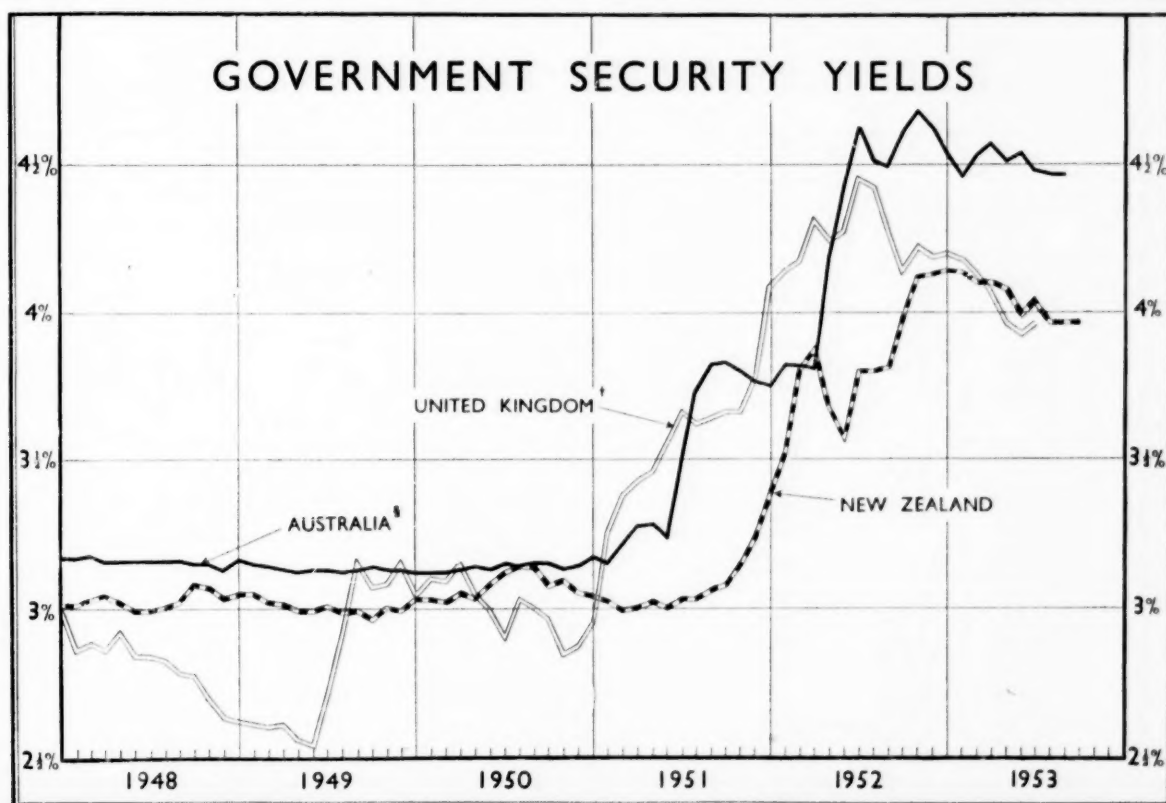
Reserve Bank : Discount Rate	.....	1½% as from 26/7/41
Advances to State	To Marketing Organisations and for General Purposes*	1% " 22/2/46
	(minimum)	4% }
Trading Banks : Overdraft Rate	(maximum)	5% } as from 1/8/41

\*For Treasury Bills or Overdrafts.



## V-GOVERNMENT SECURITY YIELDS

Calendar Year	In New Zealand	In London			In Australia
	Long-term 3% 1960-63	N.Z. Government Long-term 3½% 1962-65	British Gov't. Long-term†	British Gov't. Short-term‡	Commonwealth Long-term§
1947	3.00	2.62	2.67	2.18	3.17
1948	3.03	2.88	2.79	2.02	3.14
1949	3.00	3.13	2.83	1.94	3.13
1950	3.07	3.24	2.99	2.03	3.14
1951	3.08	3.52	3.59	1.85	3.53
1952	3.85	4.23	4.25	2.98	4.34
Monthly:					
1952—July	3.80	4.67	4.42	3.48	4.51
Aug.	3.81	4.42	4.27	3.16	4.49
Sept.	3.98	4.17	4.14	3.01	4.61
Oct.	4.12	4.20	4.21	2.97	4.68
Nov.	4.13	4.12	4.18	2.88	4.62
Dec.	4.14	4.12	4.19	2.91	4.53
1953—Jan.	4.13	4.17	4.17	3.45	4.46
Feb.	4.10	4.11	4.12	3.29	4.53
Mar.	4.10	4.07	4.06	3.17	4.57
April	4.08	4.05	3.97	3.09	4.51
May	3.99	4.00	3.94	3.02	4.54
June	4.03	4.00	3.97	2.99	4.48
July	3.97	4.01	3.98	2.97	4.47
Aug.	3.97	3.90			4.47
Sept.	3.97	3.80			4.43



§ Compiled from "Statistical Bulletin", Commonwealth Bank of Australia. Estimated from rates on securities maturing in 10 or more years.

† Compiled from "Monthly Digest of Statistics" of United Kingdom. 3% Savings Bonds 1960-70 to December, 1947; 2½% Savings Bonds 1964-67 to December, 1950; 3% Savings Bonds, 1965-75 from January, 1951. (In 1950 the average yield on 3½% War Loan stock was 3.77 and on 2½% Consols, 3.54.)

‡ Compiled from "Monthly Digest of Statistics" of United Kingdom. 2½% National War Bonds 1952-54 to December, 1949; 2½% Exchequer Stock 1955 to December, 1952; 2½% Funding Loan 1956-61 from January, 1953.

## VI—BANK DEBITS AND VELOCITY OF CIRCULATION\*

	1938	1951				1952				1953			
	Index of Velocity of Circulation (Base: 1938 = 100)	Free Deposits (£N.Z. Millions)	Bank Debits (£N.Z. Millions)	Index of Bank Debits (Base: 1938 = 100)	Index of Velocity of Circulation (Base: 1938 = 100)	Free Deposits (£N.Z. Millions)	Bank Debits (£N.Z. Millions)	Index of Bank Debits (Base: 1938 = 100)	Index of Velocity of Circulation (Base: 1938 = 100)	Free Deposits (£N.Z. Millions)	Bank Debits (£N.Z. Millions)	Index of Bank Debits (Base: 1938 = 100)	Index of Velocity of Circulation (Base: 1938 = 100)
January	91	180.5	296.0	381	67	184.3	313.7	403	70	183.0	261.7	336	59
February	103	186.4	309.8	398	68	188.2	358.6	461	78	193.3	319.8	411	68
March	123	179.4	313.5	403	72	178.0	386.3	497	89	187.8	403.7	519	88
April	99	186.3	297.7	383	66	182.8	315.8	406	71	199.0	340.6	438	70
May	90	198.2	297.2	382	62	184.9	311.6	401	69	209.2	312.8	402	61
June	93	203.8	296.6	381	60	181.3	279.5	359	63	211.9	310.5	399	60
July	93	195.4	310.8	400	65	176.3	297.7	383	69	203.0	312.1	401	63
August	94	185.1	299.1	385	66	171.6	269.6	347	65	199.6	286.4	368	59
September	92	183.1	288.6	371	65	169.6	271.9	350	66	199.3	294.6	379	61
October	101	182.8	332.0	427	75	171.6	284.2	365	68				
November	102	180.1	310.7	399	71	171.9	263.0	338	63				
December	120	180.8	305.0	392	69	177.4	350.0	450	81				
Monthly Average	100	186.8	304.7	392	67	178.2	308.5	397	69				

NOTE.—Free Deposits: Monthly average of weekly totals of trading banks' non-interest bearing deposits, excluding Government deposits and Wool Retention balances.

Bank Debits: Estimated total bank debits, excluding Government debits. Totals include cheques drawn against overdrawn accounts as well as debits against free deposit accounts.

Velocity of Circulation: Total monthly debits divided by the monthly average of free deposits.

\* For monthly averages 1935 to 1949 see page 123 of the November, 1950, issue of the "Statistical Summary".

## VII—SAVINGS BANKS†

(£N.Z. thousands)

## Deposits and Withdrawals

Source: Census and Statistics Department

Year ended 31st March	Post Office					Trustee				
	Deposits	Withdrawals	Excess of Deposits over Withdrawals	Interest Credited 31st March	Depositors' Credit Balances	Deposits	Withdrawals	Excess of Deposits over Withdrawals	Interest Credited 31st March	Depositors' Credit Balances
1948	72,553	68,660	3,893	3,307	148,442	16,137	15,622	514	724	31,778
1949	70,691	67,723	2,968	3,439	154,849	15,994	15,748	246	747	32,771
1950	77,963	73,306	4,657	3,821	*170,982	17,616	16,234	1,381	791	34,943
1951	86,395	85,190	1,205	3,915	176,103	20,720	19,610	1,110	839	36,893
1952	98,206	93,749	4,457	4,080	184,639	22,937	22,373	564	877	38,334
1953	99,126	96,700	2,426	4,208	191,274	22,645	23,012	—367†	886	38,854
Monthly:										
1952—Sept.	8,635	7,799	835		187,076*	1,864	1,894	—31†		38,411*
Oct.	8,901	8,328	573		187,649*	1,946	1,879	66		38,478*
Nov.	7,254	7,529	—275†		187,374*	1,642	1,740	—98†		38,380*
Dec.	9,330	8,915	415		187,789*	2,283	2,344	—61†		38,319*
1953—Jan.	6,275	5,771	504		188,292*	1,398	1,444	—46†		38,273*
Feb.	7,415	8,603	—1,187†		187,105*	1,767	2,061	—295†		37,978*
Mar.	8,896	8,936	—40†	4,208	191,274	2,097	2,108	—11†	886	38,854
Apr.	9,321	7,925	1,397		192,671*	2,090	1,898	192		39,046*
May	9,370	8,404	966		193,636*	2,200	1,933	267		39,313*
June	8,857	8,809	48		193,685*	2,027	1,930	97		39,410*
July	10,577	8,682	1,895		195,580*	2,217	1,968	249		39,659*
Aug.	8,884	7,536	1,348		196,928*					
Sept.	8,752	7,811	942		197,870*					

† Excluding National Savings throughout and War Gratuity Accounts up to and including March, 1949.

‡ Excess of withdrawals over deposits.

\* Includes £7,655,000 representing £11,448,000 transferred on 1st April, 1949, from War Gratuity Accounts, less withdrawals during April and May, 1949, relating to these accounts, amounting to £3,793,000. These amounts are excluded from the deposits and withdrawals figures for the year ended 31st March, 1950.

\* Excluding interest accrued but not credited.

(£N.Z. millions)

## I. VALUE OF PRODUCTION

Source: Census and Statistics Department

Production Year	Agriculture	Pastoral	Dairy Poultry and Bees	Total Farming Groups	Mining	Fisheries	Forestry	Factory§	Building and Miscellaneous Groups	Total all Groups
1941-42	11.2	46.5	39.6	97.3	5.4	0.6	4.5	41.2	14.8	163.8
1942-43	12.6	47.8	38.2	98.6	5.3	0.6	5.0	45.2	15.5	170.2
1943-44	14.0	47.2	37.7	98.9	5.7	0.7	5.3	49.4	15.9	175.9
1944-45	15.4	56.1	44.9	116.4	5.8	0.7	5.4	52.0	16.4	196.7
1945-46	15.1	56.4	41.3	112.8	6.0	0.9	6.1	55.6	19.0	200.4
1946-47	15.6	64.9	50.9	131.4	6.4	1.0	6.6	61.7	23.1	230.2
1947-48	15.7	80.4	58.9	155.0	6.3	1.1	8.7	70.8	24.4	266.3
1948-49	18.5	84.0	66.3	168.8	6.9	1.2	10.5	77.0	27.8	292.2
1949-50	18.7	117.4	72.8	208.9	8.2	1.4	10.9	84.5	31.1	345.0
1950-51	19.4	214.3	81.6	315.3	9.4	1.4	12.8	97.4	36.8	473.1
1951-52*	18.3	134.3	95.3	247.9	9.4	1.5	16.1	110.0	41.4	426.3

(Base: 1938-39 = 100)

## 2. INDEX NUMBERS OF VALUE AND VOLUME OF PRODUCTION

Production Year	Farm		Factory§		TOTAL—(All Groups†) including Other		TOTAL—(All Groups†) Per Head of Population	
	Value	Volume	Value	Volume	Value	Volume	Value	Volume
1941-42	119	111	135	117	120	110	119	109
1942-43	120	108	148	122	125	109	123	108
1943-44	121	105	162	129	129	108	127	106
1944-45	142	113	170	132	145	114	140	110
1945-46	138	107	182	136	147	112	138	105
1946-47	160	110	202	146	169	118	153	107
1947-48	189	113	232	159	196	123	174	110
1948-49	206	117	252	163	215	129	187	112
1949-50	255	123	277	174	253	137	217	117
1950-51	385	126	319	183	348	141	292	118
1951-52*	303	126	361	191	313	143	257	117

\* Provisional. † Excluding processing of primary products included in other groups.

† All Groups includes Mining, Fisheries, Forestry, Building and Miscellaneous Groups in addition to Farm and Factory Groups.

## IX-PUBLIC DEBT OF NEW ZEALAND

SECURITIES CHARGED ON THE PUBLIC REVENUES OF NEW ZEALAND AND

OUTSTANDING ON 31ST MARCH OF EACH YEAR.

Note: In this table debt domiciled overseas is expressed in New Zealand currency at the rate, £Stg.100 = £N.Z.100 = £A.125. In tables published prior to 1948 the rate used was £Stg.100 = £N.Z.125 = £A.125.

(£N.Z. thousands)

Source: Appendices to the Journals, House of Representatives, B-1 (Part 1) and B-6.

	1939	1948	1949	1950	1951	1952	1953
<b>Domiciled in New Zealand:</b>							
HELD BY PUBLIC—							
Debentures and Stock .....	67,267	186,362	191,549	176,750	192,336	192,825	190,850
Treasury Bills .....	3,875	10	5	—	—	—	—
HELD BY STATE DEPARTMENTS AND RESERVE BANK—							
Debentures and Stock .....	62,446	252,750	287,846	318,363	330,089	319,429	343,048
Treasury Bills .....	12,650	54,990	54,995	70,000	67,000	63,600	56,000
<b>Total .....</b>	<b>146,238</b>	<b>494,112</b>	<b>534,395</b>	<b>565,112</b>	<b>589,425</b>	<b>575,855</b>	<b>589,898</b>
<b>Domiciled in United Kingdom:</b>							
Stock† .....	130,662	83,188	79,962	78,140	77,808	77,808	77,790
Memorandum of Security .....	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
<b>Total† .....</b>	<b>130,662</b>	<b>83,188</b>	<b>79,962</b>	<b>78,140</b>	<b>77,808</b>	<b>77,808</b>	<b>77,790</b>
<b>Domiciled in Australia:§</b>							
Debentures and Stock .....	704	623	623	623	—	—	—
<b>Amount Outstanding*† .....</b>	<b>277,603</b>	<b>577,923</b>	<b>614,981</b>	<b>643,875</b>	<b>667,223</b>	<b>653,662</b>	<b>667,689</b>

\* Gross indebtedness—excludes accumulated sinking funds.

† Excludes £Stg.24.1m. of funded debt and £Stg.2.1m. of other debt in respect of which payments of interest and principal were suspended by agreement with U.K. Government in 1931.

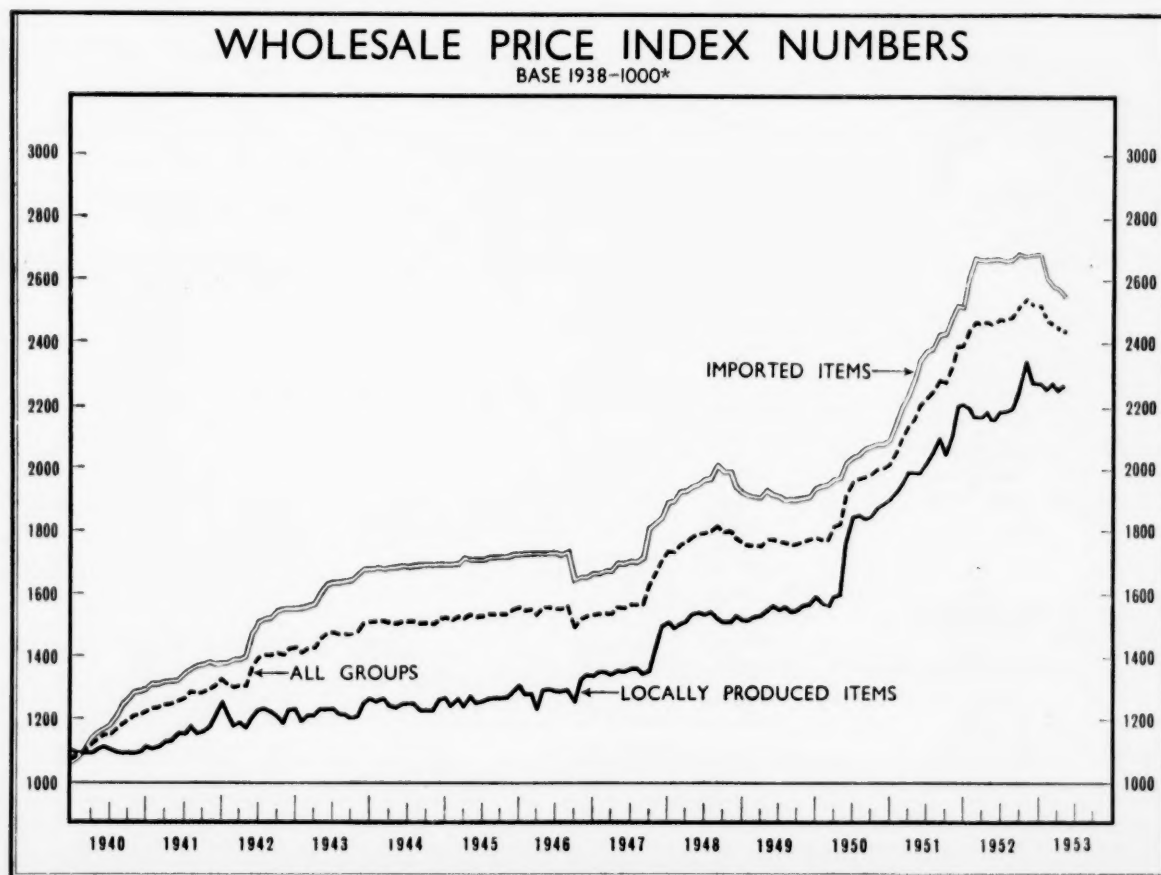
§ These figures differ slightly from those in B-1 (Part 1) and B-6 owing to small differences in the rates of exchange used for conversion to New Zealand currency.

## X-WHOLESALE PRICE INDEX NUMBERS

Base : 1938 = 1000\*

Source: Census and Statistics Department

Calendar Year	Consumers' Goods			Producers' Materials			Imported Items	Locally Produced Items	All Groups
	Food	Non-food	Combined	Builders	Other	Combined			
1939	1097	1021	1066	993	1013	1008	1011	1067	1034
1943	1361	1714	1504	1476	1406	1424	1625	1221	1460
1944	1392	1797	1556	1508	1444	1461	1679	1249	1504
1945	1412	1819	1576	1583	1457	1489	1704	1274	1529
1946	1433	1817	1588	1570	1459	1488	1699	1295	1534
1947	1570	1812	1668	1500	1539	1529	1734	1386	1592
1948	1664	1994	1798	1620	1793	1750	1949	1521	1773
1949	1625	1987	1771	1640	1787	1750	1907	1552	1762
1950	1758	2138	1911	1776	1965	1918	2022	1767	1918
1951	2038	2510	2228	2015	2306	2233	2358	2057	2235
1952	2228	2670	2407	2310	2609	2535	2659	2229	2483
Monthly:									
1952—July	2187	2667	2387	2305	2600	2527	2665	2188	2472
Aug.	2199	2659	2390	2320	2608	2537	2670	2198	2480
Sept.	2287	2663	2444	2340	2624	2553	2688	2251	2513
Oct.	2430	2663	2527	2343	2606	2541	2679	2337	2541
Nov.	2337	2662	2473	2337	2621	2551	2684	2286	2523
Dec.	2306	2665	2456	2359	2630	2563	2685	2283	2522
1953—Jan.	2275	2524	2379	2360	2588	2532	2610	2267	2472
Feb.	2315	2499	2392	2360	2552	2505	2585	2281	2462
Mar.	2280	2485	2366	2356	2552	2503	2578	2261	2450
Apr.	2299	2476	2373	2356	2521	2480	2551	2276	2440
May	2344	2482	2403	2328	2520	2473	2544	2305	2448
June	2393	2476	2429	2281	2522	2463	2532	2336	2453
July	2351	2497	2413	2272	2523	2462	2520	2337	2446



\* Recalculated from Government Statistician's Index, Base : 1926-30 = 1000